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## SOCIOLOGICAL NOTES.

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**Tenement House Reform in New York, 1834-1900.**—Under this title, Mr. Lawrence Vieller, the secretary of the Tenement House Commission of 1900, has published<sup>1</sup> the report he prepared and submitted to the commission on May 8, 1900. It begins its review of events with 1834, when Gerrett Forbes, the city inspector of the board of health, in his annual report called attention to the condition of the tenement houses at that time. The same thing was done again in 1842 by Dr. John H. Griscom, who held the same office as Dr. Forbes. Dr. Griscom also published an eighteen-page pamphlet, entitled "A Brief View of the Sanitary Condition of the City." The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor (organized in 1843), began its work for tenement house reform in 1846, and appointed a special committee "to inquire into the sanitary condition of the laboring classes" in 1853, whose report covered thirty-two pages of printed matter in the annual report of the association. This led to a more detailed study of the Eleventh ward the next year, and to the formation of a company (1855) to build a model tenement. This company was called the "Workmen's Home Association," and put up a large building in Mott street, which later became one of the worst tenements in the city.

The work of the first legislative commission in 1856 is next described. Its recommendations for the licensing of tenements under the careful supervision of a competent permanent board of home commissioners were excellent, but remained unheeded.

The "draft riots" of 1863 called attention anew to the dangers from the tenement house population, and a "Citizens' Association" was formed, which had a sub-committee known as the "Council of Hygiene and Public Health." The reports of this council, made up of the leading physicians of the city, were so startling that in 1865 came the first legislative action. A metropolitan board of health was established in 1866, and a tenement-house law passed in 1867.

In 1877 Mr. Alfred T. White began in Brooklyn the construction of model tenements known as the "Home Buildings," and modeled on the plan of those of the Improved Industrial Dwellings Company of London. This started a new agitation, which resulted in a new and improved tenement-house law in 1879.

<sup>1</sup> New York: The Evening Post Job Printing House, 156 Fulton Street. Pp. 48.

The reform movement did not keep pace with the growing evils. Professor Felix Adler's lectures before the Ethical Culture Society in 1884 led to the appointment of a second legislative commission in that year, and, as a result, to some amendments to the tenement-house law in 1887.

Mr. Jacob A. Riis began his battle with slum conditions about this time, and by 1894 a third legislative commission was appointed to investigate and report. The Gilder report was the result, and a new Tenement House Act was passed in 1895. This act left, however, many loop holes for unscrupulous builders, and the recommendations of the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society of New York were not heeded. Therefore a new agitation was begun by holding a public exhibition in 1900 of five models, 1,000 photographs and over 100 maps, giving a very graphic picture of tenement house conditions in New York, and contrasting them with those in other cities, both here and in Europe.

In the meantime the model tenement movement through private initiative has been greatly advanced by the organization of a million dollar company known as the "City and Suburban Homes Company," with Dr. E. R. L. Gould, an able specialist in this line of work, as its executive.

The new tenement house commission of 1900 gives promise, by the ability of its personnel, of accomplishing greater permanent results than any of its predecessors.

A chronologically arranged bibliography of selected documents relating to the tenement house problem in New York accompanies Mr. Vieller's report and adds materially to its value.

**Municipal Agricultural Colony at La Chalmelle, France.**—The report of the Committee on Poor Relief of the Paris Municipal Council, presented May 31, 1899, gives an interesting account of the work done at the agricultural colony at La Chalmelle, near Paris. The report covers the fiscal year October 1, 1897, to September 30, 1898. Eighty-three unemployed were admitted to the colony for the first time and sixteen persons readmitted, making a total of ninety-nine, or about the same number as for the years 1894, 1895 and 1896, but less than for the year 1897, when there were 132 admitted. Most of these persons have little or no experience at farm work. They come from the night lodging houses and institutions in Paris and are taught the elements of gardening and truck farming, and in most cases soon become proficient enough to take places in the country, where the danger of non-employment is less than in the congested industries of the Parisian capital. By an actual investigation of the previous occupations of the 15,000 unemployed who applied for relief at the night

lodging house and elsewhere in Paris in 1897 it was found that over 6,000 were fitted for country work. This fact, if correct not only supports the contention of the superintendent of La Chalmelle that an agricultural colony is a desirable form of relief for the unemployed, but is also an interesting confirmation of the theory that probably most of those drawn from the country to the cities are unfitted for city life and likely to be eliminated in industrial competition.

Of the eighty-three new admissions at La Chalmelle in 1898 all but ten came during the winter months and had had some previous experience in the country. Of the ten who came in the summer months and represented diverse city occupations, eight left without securing agricultural employment, and two remained at the colony at the date of the report. Only fourteen of the eighty-three were natives of Paris or of the department of the Seine. The remainder had drifted into Paris from the other departments, and one was a native of the United States but of French parentage.

It is interesting to note the age classification. There is a larger percentage of young persons than would be found at the present time for example in the vacant lot farming of American cities, probably to be explained by the fact that the industrial opportunities in Paris in 1898 were fewer and the old men out of work were taken care of in other ways. Three were between 20 and 25 years of age, 22 between 25 and 30, 23 between 30 and 35, 24 between 35 and 40 and 11 between 40 and 45. The report states that it is very much easier to find places for those under forty than for those above that age.

The discipline at La Chalmelle is said to be excellent and to give no particular trouble. Four persons were expelled for repeated drunkenness and insulting conduct toward the superintendents. The colony has a library, and 878 books were loaned during the year, chiefly novels and books of travel. The cost of food per day per inhabitant of the colony was a little over one franc (1.055), the products of the farm being rated in this estimate at their market value and not at their cost of production. Out of 101 colonists who left La Chalmelle during the year 55 obtained stable employment and the year was one when the harvests were poor and the demand for agricultural labor less than usual.

The expected length of stay at the colony is four months, yet 13 found places in less than one month and 12 left within the same period; from 1 to 2 months' stay, 23 were placed and 8 left; 2 to 3 months, 8 placed and 7 left; 3 to 4 months, 1 placed and 6 left, which together with 2 expelled and 3 sent to a hospital accounts for 83 out of 101 inmates during the year. No one leaving the colony or having been expelled is readmitted. Those placed are readmitted, provided

they left their places for some other reason than merely to return to the colony, and have not returned in the meantime to Paris and have given the superintendent eight days' notice of their intention to return.

The farm of the colony comprises 260 hectares and produced 62,-216.36 francs of which the animal products amounted to 18,027.61 francs, and the vegetable products to 44,188.75 francs. The net cost of administration, etc., to the Municipal Council of Paris for the year seems to have been 34,000 francs or about \$6,000.

**The Department of Public Out-Door Relief of Paris**<sup>1</sup> has been laboring with a condition of deficit during the last twenty years, and its general budgetary report for 1900, presented by M. André Lefèvre, member of the Municipal Council and chairman of the Commission on Public Relief, gives a view of conditions not wholly encouraging.

With the exception of the year 1888 and 1889, deficit has been added to deficit, since 1884, so that at the end of 1899 the total amount was 12,500,000 francs. Economies have been attempted each year in the voting of budgets but without result. This deficit is made up by borrowing reserve funds, of which the legal limit, one-tenth the value of personal property and real estate, has almost been reached.

The budget of 1899 calls for a total expenditure of 53,000,000 francs, almost all of which is to defray expenses, which may be considered wholly ordinary and which do not look toward paying any sums borrowed to cover the deficits.

These have not been due, to any great degree, to the dishonesty of officials. Nor have conditions of bad administration mainly brought them about. They have been the result rather of the expanding demands of the work of the great, growing city. In 1848 5,000,000 francs were expended by the municipality in aids raised through taxation. In this year the amount is 23,000,000. This marks the development of the city and the city's needs.

So unsatisfactory had the financial status of the Department of Public Out-Door Relief become that M. Jules Legrand, then Under Secretary of State, in a letter addressed to the president of the Municipal Council, declared himself unwilling to undertake any new services demanded by the needs of the department, nor did he feel justified to develop further a service already begun unless the resources for its performance were assured.

The commune was the first governmental unit to assume the functions of the natural family, when the latter became unable to exercise its responsibility. As early as 507 A. D. at the Council of Tours it was commanded to care for the sick in case the family could not do so.

In the course of the centuries since the Protestant Reformation the

<sup>1</sup> Contributed by Mr. C. C. Carstens, Philadelphia.

support of charitable institutions has passed from a condition of almsgiving to that of public impost. Their autonomy has gradually disappeared and public control has grown up. During the nineteenth century the service has become more and more municipalized, and it is expected that the nation will soon relieve the municipality of the care of the aged by providing pensions for them.

Of the sources of income, that of municipal aid is growing most rapidly, while the revenue derived from personal property and real estate in the possession of the department, remains about the same.

Year.	Municipal Aid per cap. Revenue per cap.	
	<i>fr. c.</i>	<i>fr. c.</i>
1876 . . . . .	5 49	2 23
1886 . . . . .	7 82	2 54
1896 . . . . .	8 48	2 65
1898 . . . . .	8 93	2 61

This growing subsidy on the part of the municipality is urged as the strongest reason for its complete control and administration by the municipality. It is also pointed out that the teaching of history, the example of other nations, and the legislation of France itself favor this plan.

In the twenty district offices there was distributed in money or goods a sum amounting to 7,000,000 francs to 50,469 indigent families or individuals during the last year, an average of 122 francs per family or individual applicant. Among the sums expended by the department 850,000 francs were destined for pensions of the employes of the department.

The report does not hesitate to criticise the careless work of the accountants, and it demands a revision of the methods pursued. At the same time it calls for a rejection of all methods that make the demands seem smaller and the resources larger than they actually are, so that the whole work may be put upon a strict business basis in the near future.

**The Bourse du Travail of Paris**<sup>1</sup> has entered upon a new period of prosperity, after its two years of inactivity. The recent report of the labor committee of the Municipal Council and the supplementary report of the Advisory Council recommend that a sum of \$64,150 be appropriated for the expenses of this institution during the current year.

It will be remembered that in 1893 the Bourse was closed by the municipal authorities on account of alleged propagandism of socialism throughout the various labor organizations which were connected

<sup>1</sup> Contributed by Mr. C. C. Carstens, Philadelphia.

with it. In the fall of 1895 it was reopened and the number of unions has again become equal to the number associated with it at the time it was suppressed by the police.

Beside furnishing offices for the trade unions and meeting places for them, it encourages the establishment of employment bureaus connected with each trade. Where these are established in accordance with the municipal plan and are kept open six hours of the day, a substantial aid is granted. This varied from 2,400 francs paid to the stronger bodies in 1899, to 96 francs as a minimum.

This municipal liberality has not been without its dangers. To prevent trade unions from dividing up into many locals the aid is apportioned by trades, of which the various local bodies receive only their pro-rata share. Even here the enemies of trade-unionism found their opportunity to injure the efficiency of the organizations by starting large numbers of locals, each asking for its share. To prevent this, no payments are now made to unions that have not existed regularly for one full year and cannot show necessity for their establishment. The separate unions in the wards of Paris have not gained individual recognition in the distribution of the funds.

The budget for 1900 provides, besides the work previously done, for a bureau of municipal statistics, translation, and social economy. This is an experiment, but it is the design of the promoters of this bureau to bring into use information which can be collected in France, and translate monographs and reports written in foreign lands so that they may become accessible to the laboring men of Paris and other industrial centres. While the budget does not yet provide for publication, it is hoped that this may soon be taken up by the municipality.

Of 266 unions connected with the Bourse of Paris in 1899, 137 asked for municipal aid; 123 were able to satisfy the requirements of the city regarding the labor bureau, and received aid. The growth of the number of unions and of the work undertaken by them is so great that the large structure completed for the Bourse in 1892 at a cost of 2,000,000 francs, as well as the "Annex A," previously occupied, have become inadequate, and plans are already discussed for important improvements.

There are fifty-nine bourses located in the centres of industrial life of France. These are all federated by the one in Paris, so that a report, from each to all, every month, gives information concerning the number of unemployed, the demand for labor, the hours of labor and the wagescale, of each trade. It is the policy of the bourse to encourage the mobility of labor so that local demands may be readily satisfied and the wage level be maintained. To encourage this a member of one bourse seeking transfer to a bourse in another community is paid a small sum as a "viaticum."

**The International Association for the Advancement of Science, Arts and Education.**<sup>1</sup>—The initial steps toward the organization of an International Association for the Advancement of Science, Arts and Education were taken at the meetings of the British and French Associations for the Advancement of Science at Dover and Boulogne, in September, 1899. General committees were appointed by both French and British associations, the British committee including about five hundred members of the British association alone. The first meeting of the general committee was held in London in October and elected M. Léon Bourgeois as its president, with Rt. Hon. James Bryce and Sir Archibald Geike as vice-presidents, and Prof. Patrick Geddes as secretary.

A similar meeting was held in Paris at the Ministry of Education, with the result that M. Gréard, member of the French Academy and rector of the University of Paris, was elected president of the French group. M. Léon Bourgeois was nominated general president of the whole association, with M. Liard, Permanent Secretary of State for Higher Education, as general secretary. Final action on these and other nominations will be taken during the meeting of the assembly in Paris.

In America, a group has been formed with Dr. William T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and Dr. R. S. Woodward, president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, as vice-presidents.

The general object of the international association is to advance and supplement the progress and development of our common civilization, to record the manifold results in science, arts and education and in social improvement, and to make these more and more widely accessible, extending their educational usefulness and furthering their practical application. To this end it is proposed to institute intellectual co-operation between different countries, particularly by the establishment of a central bureau to maintain permanent relations between learned societies, scientific organizations, universities and educational establishments.

The immediate work and one which has a direct relation to the permanent office of the association is the creation of an international assembly to be held at Paris this summer in connection with the Exposition. This assembly will be in fact a great international summer school, taking advantage of the two characteristic aspects of modern expositions, the vast development of congresses, no less than that of their great material departments.

<sup>1</sup> Contributed by Chas. S. Lecky, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City.



The first task of the assembly is to co-operate with the international congresses held under the auspices of the French Government. A congress information bureau has been established with special rendez-vous at the rooms of learned societies and elsewhere for members of the association, to enable them to reach the resources of the Exposition; and to meet fellow-workers, French and foreign alike. During the entire Exposition lectures and conferences in different languages will be given in various halls at the disposition of the assembly. The conferences will be of three kinds; First, *leçons-guides*, peripatetic lectures given in different parts of the Exposition, and directed by professors, engineers, artists, art-critics and specialists in all departments. General conferences then will treat of the discoveries and the latest problems in science, as well as of the general movements in arts and literature, industrial and social progress, etc., and finally there will be conferences upon expositions in general, with special reference to the Exposition of 1900, its history, organization and classification.

Members will be taken round about Paris from time to time, and receptions will be held in the various halls of the assembly. Reading and conversation circles will be an attractive feature of the summer's program, while every facility will be afforded members to render their visit to Paris the more agreeable and to aid their researches and studies.

So far as general information is concerned, the preceding account may suffice; but the student, the specialist, the educationalist, may well wish, however, some more intimate account of the nature and proposed objects of the international association; while from the standpoint of the learned societies and of the universities it is naturally desirable to have the fullest understanding as to the possibilities of practical usefulness offered by the association or latent in the possibilities of an organization still necessarily somewhat undefined.

Like any individual mind, a social organization like this has a side towards thought and a side towards action. As the individual takes in his impressions through the senses, and not only records them in memory, but builds them up into concepts, so a scientific association is but an organization in which such individual activities are recorded and rendered generally accessible. A bibliography is thus a social memory, a collective brain. But as the individual mind is more than memory, so must an adequate social organization have more than its library of records, its bibliographic catalogue. It must endeavor to compare, to combine, to summarize, to interpret and to generalize. Hence the usefulness, frequently international in character, not only of publications, like the Royal Society's catalogue of scientific papers,

but of standing committees of men of science, such as are so frequently established in connection with the various national associations for the advancement of science. The good work done by the international collaboration of astronomers, or meteorologists, the progress of the metric system, the comparatively recent unification of electrical measurements, are familiar examples.

Without, of course, repeating or duplicating any work at present being adequately done, it is obviously desirable that a record be kept and made as largely accessible as possible of all the different movements toward unification and share in progress over the world of science, and that this may be not only done through individual aid or special suggestion, but gain a collective force.

The correlation of learned societies of the great universities of the world and of cultured people in general, is no mere matter of kindly courtesy, of mutual eligibility to membership or the like. It has its scientific side, for without the slightest degree seeking to limit the most complete individual freedom of investigation of all and in all directions, it must be recognized that the efficiency and eminence of an investigator largely depends upon his grasp, not only of the particular problem before him, but of the general methods and possibilities of his science, and this, if possible, through its varying outlooks at different phases of its history. Here the different treatises of the different sciences vary greatly; some magisterial in their comprehensiveness and arrangement, but all the more accurate in the placing of effects and in the spirit of their interpretation. From this standpoint the programs issued by the various congresses of the Exposition are found to vary greatly, some of the best indicating such a clear survey and such a masterly analysis of their subjects as to make investigation more orderly and discussion more relevant and practical than is often the case, even in the would-be most scientific of gatherings where no such program has been arranged; admirably suited also to the division of labor among mutually-understanding groups of specialists.

To utilize and to promote such a general survey and such practical subdivision is one of the most useful tasks which can lie before the association, and there need be no fear of stereotyping any particular program or outline, since this by the very nature of the case is always open and will find relief in every assembly.

**International Arbitration.**<sup>1</sup>—The Sixth Annual Lake Mohonk Conference for International Arbitration was held at Lake Mohonk, June 6, 7 and 8, 1900, at the invitation of the hospitable Albert K. Smiley. Like its predecessors, it was a practical body, made up of men and women of varying views as to national and international

<sup>1</sup> Contributed by Hon. Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

problems, but all united on the vital necessity of substituting international arbitration for the arbitrament of war in the settlement of international disputes. Following the policy of last year, a rule was adopted excluding references to the Philippine and South African wars, a rule which was carefully observed by supporters of the administration who were present. The more ardent anti-Imperialists, however, seemed unable to talk on the question of arbitration without bringing in references to the existing wars, although it was clearly evident that the two questions were entirely distinct. The principal address was made by Frederick William Holls, of New York, secretary of the American delegation to the Hague Peace Conference of 1899. It was a masterly presentation of the causes leading up to the conference, the discussions and the outcome. For nearly two hours Mr. Holls held the close attention of the audience, while he described the great and substantial contributions to the cause of international peace which had been worked out by a conference composed of distinguished diplomats who had come together really expecting to do no more than pass a set of platitudes which would sound well, but would mean very little.

Among the other speakers were Professor Felix Adler, of New York City; John Crosby Brown; Dr. William Hayes Ward, of the *Independent*; Theodore Sutro, New York City; Protap Chunder Mazoomdar, of Calcutta; Hon. Samuel J. Barrows, of Washington; Mrs. William S. Clark, daughter of the late John Bright; former Congressman William J. Coombes, of Brooklyn; Professor J. Rendal Harris, of Cambridge University, and Robert Treat Paine, of Boston.

Hon. Charles Mattison, former Chief Justice of Rhode Island, was the presiding officer, and Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, Miss Martha D. Adams and Clinton Rogers Woodruff served as secretaries.

The conference adopted the following Declaration of Principles:

DECLARATION OF THE SIXTH MOHONK LAKE ARBITRATION  
CONFERENCE.

The year has been a chequered one in the history of peace. The war with Spain was concluded by the treaty of Paris, but even yet the fighting drags on in the Philippines. A still more bloody and bitter war was carried on in South Africa. These conflicts sadden the hearts of all who love the principles which this Conference advocates. Yet friends of peace need not be discouraged. These wars have given to the world a sad lesson of the folly and the danger to states, of submitting to the arbitrament of force such differences as might be settled by the arbitrament of reason.

On the other hand, the friends of peace have occasion to exult in the accomplishment of a work unparalleled in human history, by

which nearly all the nations of the world have become associated in a declared purpose to avoid war. By the labors of the distinguished members of the Peace Conference at The Hague, in which the representatives of this country had so honorable a part, there has been provided an august permanent tribunal, before which every nation can bring its differences with other Powers, assured of an impartial decision. This Conference rejoices to know that twenty-six nations have ratified the treaty constituting this international court, the United States being the first power to act. It also rejoices to be informed that the permanent organization of this great tribunal will be soon accomplished, so that it will be ready to do the work assigned to it. This union of the nations of the earth is an event of the first historic importance, fitly rounding out a great century, and giving promise of immeasurable good for the centuries to come.

This wonderful event, achieved during the past year, imperatively settles the next step which the friends of peace should take, namely, to induce this government to enter into separate treaties with all other Powers, under which all such difficulties with them as cannot be settled by the usual diplomatic negotiations, shall be referred to the international tribunal at The Hague. The reference of disputes to that tribunal is, under the provision of the treaty, now only permissive. This was as much as that Conference could well devise and recommend. What is now permissive should, so far as this country is concerned, be made obligatory. This can be accomplished by new and brief treaties with the other Powers, under the terms of which all disputes which may arise, of whatever nature, not settled by ordinary diplomatic methods, shall be referred for final decision to this permanent court of the nations. To this end, this Conference hereby petitions the President of the United States that he enter into negotiations with other Powers for such treaties, and it further appeals to the people of the United States that they create a public opinion that such treaties shall be promptly ratified by the Senate of the United States.

To the end that such public opinion in favor of peace and arbitration may be attained, this Conference recommends that public meetings be held for this purpose in the larger and smaller centres of population; and it especially urges that the blessings of peace, rather than the glories of war, be emphasized in our common and higher schools, and it particularly requests that teachers of religion shall in their ministrations, and especially at the Christmas season, urge upon their people the obligation to use all influence in their power to bring to the earth the rule of that spirit of peace and charity which sees in every race or nation brothers for whose welfare this nation has a duty as well as for its own.